

# Dietary Cadmium and Benzo(a)pyrene Increased Intestinal Metallothionein Expression in the Fish

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#### ▶ To cite this version:

G. Roesijadi, S. Rezvankhah, A. Perez-Matus, A. Mitelberg, K. Torruellas, et al.. Dietary Cadmium and Benzo(a)pyrene Increased Intestinal Metallothionein Expression in the Fish. Marine Environmental Research, 2008, 67 (1), pp.25. 10.1016/j.marenvres.2008.10.002 . hal-00563060

# HAL Id: hal-00563060 https://hal.science/hal-00563060

Submitted on 4 Feb 2011

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### Accepted Manuscript

Dietary Cadmium and Benzo(a)pyrene Increased Intestinal Metallothionein Expression in the Fish *Fundulus heteroclitus* 

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PII:	S0141-1136(08)00218-3
DOI:	10.1016/j.marenvres.2008.10.002
Reference:	MERE 3294
To appear in:	Marine Environmental Research
Received Date:	8 August 2008
Revised Date:	6 October 2008
Accepted Date:	7 October 2008



Please cite this article as: Roesijadi, G., Rezvankhah, S., Perez-Matus, A., Mitelberg, A., Torruellas, K., Van Veld, P.A., Dietary Cadmium and Benzo(a)pyrene Increased Intestinal Metallothionein Expression in the Fish *Fundulus heteroclitus, Marine Environmental Research* (2008), doi: 10.1016/j.marenvres.2008.10.002

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- 1 Running Head: Metallothionein and dietary cadmium in fish
- 2 Title of article: Dietary Cadmium and Benzo(a)pyrene Increased Intestinal Metallothionein
- 3 Expression in the Fish Fundulus heteroclitus
- 4
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#### 19 Abstract

20

21 Fish were individually fed food pellets containing cadmium, benzo(a)pyrene, or a combination of the two, then analyzed for metallothionein mRNA expression in the intestine, 22 23 liver, and gill using real-time RT-qPCR. An initial experiment using only cadmium showed that 24 ingestion of pellets varied in individual fish, and estimates of cadmium dose from the numbers of 25 ingested pellets indicated considerable individual variability in cadmium dose. Induction of 26 intestinal metallothionein mRNA was apparent, however, and a linear dose-response relationship was observed for metallothionein expression and cadmium dose in the intestine, but not the other 27 organs, which showed no induction. In a second experiment, the entire daily cadmium dose was 28 provided in a single contaminated pellet that was consumed by all treated fish, effectively 29 eliminating the effect of variable ingestion rates on dose, and the interaction between cadmium 30 31 and benzo(a)pyrene was also investigated. The intestine was again the primary organ for 32 metallothionein induction by cadmium. When benzo(a)pyrene was administered together with cadmium, induction of metallothionein was potentiated by the presence of benzo(a)pyrene, with 33 34 the main effect seen in the intestine, where already high levels of induction by cadmium alone increased by 1.74-fold when benzo(a)pyrene was present. 35

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37 Keywords: Metallothionein; Metals; Hydrocarbons; Metal-organic interactions; mRNA; Fish

#### 38 **1. Introduction**

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40 Organs at the environmental-organism interface, which are involved in uptake processes, are important in the absorption of metals from the environment and especially useful in analyzing 41 42 events associated with dietary exposure (Harrison et al., 1989; Thomann et al., 1997). In higher 43 animals, dietary cadmium absorption is characterized by high levels of cadmium in the intestinal mucosa and its slow transfer to other internal organs (Elsenhans et al., 1997). About 60% of 44 cadmium in the mucosa of the small intestine is bound to the metal-binding protein 45 46 metallothionein shortly after dietary exposure (Lehman et al., 1986). Metallothionein is involved 47 in intestinal cadmium absorption through its induction and binding of cadmium. Subsequent interorgan cadmium transport out of the intestine is, in part, associated with serosal release as 48 49 cadmium-metallothionein complexes (Zalups et al., 2003). For dietary exposure to cadmium in fish such as salmon and rainbow trout, the intestine is also the site of absorption and the portal 50 51 for redistribution via the systemic circulation, resulting in both cadmium accumulation and toxicity in other organs (Baldisserotto et al., 2005; Baldisserotto et al., 2006; Berntssen et al., 52 53 2001a; Berntssen et al., 2001b; Berntssen et al., 2000; Berntssen et al., 2003; Franklin et al., 54 2005; Lundebye et al., 1999; Ng et al., 2008; Thomann et al., 1997). Although the proportion of 55 cadmium that crosses the gut for transport other organs is relatively low (Franklin et al., 2005; 56 Ng et al., 2008), the dietary exposure route is considered significant in the movement of 57 cadmium through food chains (Dallinger et al., 1987; Harrison et al., 1989; Wallace et al., 2003). 58 While it is known that metallothionein is induced in fish intestines in response to dietary 59 cadmium (Berntssen et al., 2001a; Chowdhury et al., 2005) and that, as noted above, the intestine 60 is the site of absorption of dietary cadmium, there is still little information on the response of fish 61 intestinal metallothionein to dietary cadmium exposure. It is reported that intestinal

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62 metallothionein is induced in response to water-borne cadmium in the killifish Fundulus 63 heteroclitus, a ubiquitous inhabitant of estuarine environments along the North American 64 Atlantic coastline (Van Cleef-Toedt et al., 2001). Yet similar induction of killifish intestinal 65 metallothionein in response to dietary cadmium has yet to be reported. Moreover, because 66 exposures in the natural environment are likely to be to mixtures of substances that include 67 hydrocarbons as well as metals (Rana, 2006), the potential modulation of cadmium-induced 68 metallothionein induction by polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons such as benzo(a)pyrene, an 69 environmental mutagen, is also of interest. Our objective was to determine the effect of dietary 70 exposure to cadmium and co-exposure to benzo(a) pyrene on metallothionein induction in F. 71 heteroclitus, focusing on expression of the metallothionein mRNA in the intestine, liver, and gill.

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#### 73 2. Materials and methods

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75 2.1. Fish

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77 Individuals of *Fundulus heteroclitus* were collected from reference sites in Chesapeake Bay (e.g., Van Veld et al., 1997; Vogelbein et al., 1990) for the experiments described below. They 78 79 were maintained in aquaria containing 120 L recirculating synthetic seawater (Instant Ocean, Aquarium Systems, Inc., in charcoal-filtered, deionized water) at 20 psu and either 20 or 25° C, 80 81 depending on the ambient temperature at the time of collection. Aquaria were outfitted with 82 Skilter Power Filters (Aquatic Ecosystems, Inc., Apopka, FL). Fish were initially fed a 83 commercial flake food (Aquatox Food, Aquatic Ecosystems, Inc., Apopka, FL), supplemented 84 by pellets prepared from Gel Fish Food (Aquatic Ecosystems, Inc., Apopka, FL) (see below for

- food preparation). Fish were trained to eat food pellets described below during the maintenanceperiod.
- 87

88 2.2. Preparation of food pellets

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90 Gel Fish Food powder (45 g) was added to heated water (48 ml) according to the 91 manufacturer's instructions. Pellets made from this unamended mixture were fed to the fish 92 during the maintenance phase in aquaria. Control pellets prepared for the exposures to cadmium 93 or benzo(a)pyrene received appropriate volumes of the carrier solvents, added to the Gel Fish 94 Powder slurry before allowing the mixture to gel. The resultant slurry was poured between two 95 glass electrophoresis plates separated by 1.5 mm spacers and allowed to gel at 4°C. Once solidified, 3 mm diameter discs weighing approximately 8.5 to 10 mg wet weight were cut from 96 97 the gel sheets using punches from an immunodiffusion punch set (Gelman Sciences Inc [now 98 Pall Life Sciences, Inc.]), Ann Arbor, MI). 99 100 To make cadmium-contaminated food for the first, preliminary, experiment, 72  $\mu$ l of a 5 M

101 stock solution of  $CdCl_2$  in 0.01 N nitric acid was added during preparation of the Gel Fish Food. 102 A comparable volume of 0.01 N nitric acid, which did not measurably alter pH, was added to the 103 control food. The cadmium content was 5.7 µg cadmium per pellet, equivalent to 1.2 µg 104 cadmium per mg dry weight. Cadmium-exposed fish were fed only the cadmium-laden pellets. 105 Control pellets contained the dilute HNO<sub>3</sub> solvent carrier only, and averaged 5.9 x  $10^4$  µg 106 cadmium per pellet, equivalent to 1 x  $10^4$  µg cadmium per mg dry pellet weight.

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108 For the second follow-on experiment, the preparation of contaminated pellets was modified 109 to minimize the effect of individual variability in pellet consumption on dose observed in the 110 first experiment (see below). For this experiment, a single pellet contained the entire daily dose of cadmium, benzo(a)pyrene, or cadmium plus benzo(a)pyrene. To make the cadmium-laden 111 112 pellets, 720 µl of a 5 M CdCl, in 0.01 N HNO, plus 0.9 ml cod liver oil was added to the Gel 113 Fish Food slurry to provide 36.1  $\mu$ g cadmium per pellet, equivalent to 9.0  $\mu$ g cadmium per mg 114 dry weight pellet. To make benzo(a)pyrene laden pellets, 0.9 ml of 10.35 mg per ml benzo(a)pyrene in cod liver oil plus 720 µl of 0.01N HNO<sub>3</sub> was added to the Gel Fish Food 115 116 slurry to provide a dose of 0.83  $\mu$ g benzo(a)pyrene per pellet at a concentration of 0.21  $\mu$ g 117 benzo(a)pyrene per mg dry pellet weight. The combined cadmium-benzo(a)pyrene laden pellets 118 contained similar amounts of cadmium and benzo(a)pyrene. All exposure pellets contained the 119 same carrier solvent background of 0.01 N HNO<sub>3</sub> plus cod liver oil. Control pellets contained 120 similar volumes of the carrier solvents 0.01 N HNO<sub>3</sub> and cod liver oil, but no cadmium or 121 benzo(a)pyrene.

- 122
- 123 2.3. Experiments

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The fish used in the two experiments were obtained in different collections separated by time and seasons (September versus January). For experiments, fish (mean weight 8.3 g in the first experiment and 7.9 g in the second experiment) were transferred individually from maintenance tanks to separate glass containers (one fish per 17 cm height, 15 cm diameter container) containing 1.5 liters Instant Ocean at 20 psu and 25° C in the first experiment and 20° C in the second experiment. Aeration was supplied to each container by slow bubbling through a Pasteur pipette. Water was replaced every other day. Fish were maintained on a light:dark cycle of 12 h

light:12 h dark. Fish were acclimated to the experimental containers for three days prior to the
exposure to dietary cadmium. During this period, fish were fed control pellets administered oneat-a-time by hand. The acclimation period was followed by dietary exposure during a seven-day
experimental period.

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In the first experiment, fish were fed either cadmium-laden or control pellets by hand once a 137 138 day to either satiation or up to a limit of 15 pellets per fish over the course of the seven day 139 experiment. Fish were not fed on the seventh day, when they were sacrificed for harvest of 140 organs. Cadmium-exposed fish were fed only cadmium-laden pellets, and control fish were fed 141 only control pellets. Each ingested pellet was swallowed whole, immediately after administration. Uneaten pellets were immediately removed to minimize their contact time with 142 the water and leaching of contaminants to the external medium. None of the fish consumed the 143 144 maximum number of pellets allotted for this experiment, and there was individual variability in 145 the total number of pellets consumed. The average daily consumption was about nine pellets per day. The associated individual variability in the cumulative cadmium dose enabled us to analyze 146 147 the responses of individuals as a function of dose.

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In order to better control the dose in the second experiment, the dosing protocol was modified to insure that each fish received the same total amount of cadmium and benzo(a)pyrene over the course of the experiment. To do this, fish in the second experiment were provided a single experimental pellet containing the daily dose of cadmium, benzo(a)pyrene, cadmium plus benzo(a)pyrene combination, or control treatments, followed by the remainder of the daily ration of up to nine control pellets each day for seven days, roughly similar to the average daily consumption of nine pellets per day in the first experiment. Fish were sacrificed on the eighth

156	day. All fish in this experiment consumed the daily dose of treatment pellets and, with a few		
157	exceptions, also consumed the total control pellet ration provided immediately after the treatment		
158	pellet was eaten.		
159			
160	At the end of exposures, the fish were immobilized using a combination of concentrated		
161	sodium bicarbonate (Noga, 2000) in an ice-cold Instant Ocean slurry. The intestine, liver, and		
162	gill were excised, weighed, and frozen in liquid nitrogen. Samples were stored at -80°C until		
163	analyzed for metallothionein mRNA levels.		
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165	2.4. RNA isolation		
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167	Total RNA for the first experiment was extracted from frozen tissue using Tri Reagent		
168	(Molecular Research Center, Inc., Cincinnati, OH) per manufacturer's instructions, of which 10		
169	$\mu$ g was treated with DNase using the Promega RQ1 DNase 1 kit and protocols (Fitchburg, WI).		
170	Immediately following DNase treatment, the RNA was purified using the Qiagen RNeasy kit		
171	(Qiagen, Valencia, CA) following manufacturer's instructions. RNA was eluted in 30 $\mu$ l of		
172	DEPC-treated H <sub>2</sub> O. Subsequent RNA extractions used the RNeasy MiniKit (Qiagen, Valencia,		
173	CA), followed by treatment with DNase (RNase-Free DNase kit, Qiagen, Valencia, CA).		
174			
175	2.5. Identification of metallothionein and 18S RNA sequences in Fundulus heteroclitus		
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177	Metallothionein and 18S RNA sequences were amplified by reverse transcriptase polymerase		
178	chain reaction (RT-PCR) using consensus fish metallothionein primers, gel purified by agarose		
179	gel electrophoresis, then sent to the University of Florida's Interdisciplinary Center for		

Biotechnology Research (UFICBR) for sequence verification. This laboratory used ABI Prism
BigDye Terminator cycle sequencing protocols (part number 4336776) developed by Applied
Biosystems (Perkin-Elmer Corp., Foster City, CA). Sequences for forward and reverse primers
were provided to UFICBR for sequencing the sense and antisense strands. The amplified
sequences served as templates for design of real-time PCR primers (Invitrogen's Lux<sup>™</sup> Designer
software).

*2.6. Real-time qPCR* 

Real-time PCR reactions used cDNA libraries as template for amplification of metallothionein
and 18S RNA sequences. For construction of cDNA libraries, 1 µg DNase-treated total RNA
was hybridized with 500 ng of random hexamers at 70°C for 5 minutes. For reverse
transcription, one µl of this mixture and a cocktail containing 4 µl of 5X buffer, 2 µl of 10 mM
stock of dNTPs, 0.5 µl of 40U per µl stock of RNase inhibitor, and 1µl of 200 U per µl stock of
M-MLV RT enzyme was incubated at 37°C for 60 minutes, 95°C for 5 minutes, then placed on
ice for 5 minutes.



203	conducted in an MJResearch (now Bio-Rad Laboratories) DNA Engine Opticon 2. Each sample
204	was analyzed in replicates of two using the Lux <sup>TM</sup> Fluorogenic Primers derived from sequences
205	confirmed as those for <i>Fundulus heteroclitus</i> metallothionein and 18S RNA. The threshold cycle
206	(C <sub>t</sub> ) for each amplification was used to calculate the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ for relative expression of
207	metallothionein mRNA (Livak et al., 2001). $\Delta\Delta C_t$ is the C <sub>t</sub> of metallothionein mRNA target
208	minus the $C_t$ of the endogenous 18S RNA and the $C_t$ of the 18S RNA of the plate calibrator
209	sample that was added to every plate. To validate the assumption of similar amplification
210	efficiencies for the target and reference specified by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method (Livak et al., 2001),
211	dilutions were amplified for the genes of interest. The slopes for plots of $C_t$ 's versus log dilution
212	for both metallothionein and the 18S mRNA were found not to be significantly different from
213	zero in all cases.
214	
215	2.7. Statistical analysis
216	and a second
217	The data were analyzed by analysis of variance with <i>post hoc</i> analysis using the Tukey HSD post
218	hoc test, using the JMP software package <sup>™</sup> (SAS Institute, Cary, NC). Linear regression was

219 conducted with the JMP software package<sup>TM</sup> and Kaleidagraph (Synergy Software; Reading, PA).

220

221 **3. Results** 

222

223 Initial efforts confirmed the identities of target sequences as those for metallothionein and

18S RNA. Amplified sequences for intestinal, liver, and gill metallothionein exhibited 95% or

225 greater identity with *Fundulus heteroclitus* metallothionein (NCBI accession numbers:

226 CN968347 and AB426465). That for the putative 18S RNA aligned with 98% identity with the

227 F. heteroclitus 18S RNA sequence (NCBI accession number: M91180). These findings 228 confirmed the identity of the metallothionein and 18S RNA sequences for our experimental 229 population of *F. heteroclitus*, and these amplified sequences served as templates for design of 230 Lux<sup>TM</sup> Fluorogenic Primers for real-time PCR. 231 232 Representative real-time amplification profiles and C's for intestinal, liver, and gill metallothionein from the first experiment are shown in Figure 1. The  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  values were 233 234 calculated from the C,'s as previously described. In controls of both experiments, respective 235 levels in the gill, liver, and intestine were low and roughly equivalent, with those of gills 236 consistently lower than in the liver and intestine (Tables 1 and 2). 237 238 In the first experiment, significant induction of metallothionein by cadmium was seen only in 239 the intestine, which exhibited a 10.7-fold average increase in metallothionein mRNA in 240 cadmium-exposed fish in comparison with controls; metallothionein was not induced in liver and 241 gill (Table 1). The central tendencies represented by the means of Table 1 masked the effect of individual variability in food consumption noted in the Materials and Methods section and the 242 243 resultant individual variability in cadmium dose over the course of exposure [average cumulative 244 dose of cadmium-exposed fish over six days:  $45.9 \pm 7.2$  (S.E.) µg cadmium/g fish]. There was a 245 dose-dependent linearity between cadmium dose and induction of intestinal metallothionein 246 when all samples, including controls and those exposed to cadmium, were plotted (Fig. 2). In 247 comparison, there was no measurable effect on metallothionein mRNA levels in liver and gills as 248 the cumulative cadmium dose increased.

249

250 In the second experiment, the individual variability in dose noted previously was controlled 251 by loading the entire daily cadmium dose for each fish into a single pellet. All fish ate the daily 252 exposure pellet, and, unlike the situation in the first experiment, all cadmium- and benzo(a)pyrene-exposed fish received the same cumulative dose (32.0 µg cadmium per g fish 253 254 and/or 0.74 µg benzo(a)pyrene per g fish) over the course of the seven day exposure period. The 255 cumulative cadmium dose per g fish in this experiment was not significantly different from those 256 of the first experiment (Student's t-test; p>0.05). Induction in the intestine by cadmium alone resulted in a 20-fold increase over control levels (Table 2), whereas metallothionein mRNA 257 258 levels in the gill and liver of cadmium-exposed fish were not significantly different from those of controls (Table 2). This pattern of organ-specific induction of metallothionein by dietary 259 260 cadmium was similar to that described above for the first experiment, although the magnitude of 261 induction in the intestine was lower in the first experiment. Differences in collection history and 262 seasons are possible contributing factors. Benzo(a)pyrene alone did not induce metallothionein in 263 the second experiment, although it appears that benzo(a)pyrene potentiated induction of 264 intestinal metallothionein mRNA by cadmium, causing an approximate 1.74-fold increase over 265 that by cadmium alone.

266

#### 267 4.0. Discussion

268

Our findings showed that intestinal metallothionein was induced to relatively high levels in the intestine and that intestinal metallothionein induction was dependent on the ingested cadmium dose. Metallothionein in liver and gill, on the other hand, was not significantly induced by dietary cadmium. In feeding studies such as this, individual variability in ingestion can affect both the dose to individuals and the dose-response relationship, revealed by linear regression

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274 analysis of intestinal metallothionein mRNA levels versus cadmium dose in the current study. It 275 is not uncommon in studies on dietary exposure of fish to toxic substances to maintain multiple 276 individuals in single containers and to feed fish by broadcast feeding of contaminated food to all 277 individuals in a container. Although central tendencies in measured responses can be estimated 278 in such cases, they can also be obscured by individual differences due to individual variability in 279 ingestion of contaminated food. Closely monitoring and controlling ingestion of contaminated 280 food by individual fish allowed us to minimize one component of the variance associated with 281 ingested dose.

282

283 The lack of induction of hepatic and gill metallothionein in our study is believed to be due to 284 slow transport of cadmium across the intestine to other organs and negligible waterborne cadmium exposure over the course of our experiments. This is consistent with studies on 285 rainbow trout in which 93% or greater of the cadmium administered via a dietary path fails to 286 287 cross the gut wall (Chowdhury et al., 2004a; Franklin et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2008). Induction of 288 metallothionein in organs such as kidney, liver, and gill would be expected to occur following 289 protracted exposure and export of cadmium from the intestine (Berntssen et al., 2001a; 290 Chowdhury et al., 2005). Thus, after dietary cadmium exposure of one month and longer, 291 cadmium accumulation in the liver, gill, and kidney of rainbow trout and Atlantic salmon is 292 elevated, but generally remains lower than those detected in intestinal tissues (Berntssen et al., 293 2001a; Chowdhury et al., 2005; Szebedinszky et al., 2001). It was suggested from experiments 294 on rainbow trout that the gut wall serves as a barrier that reduces cadmium transfer to internal 295 tissues (Franklin et al., 2005). The low efficiency of gastrointestinal transfer of cadmium, 296 whether associated with prey (0.9-6.4%) (Ng et al., 2008) or with cadmium-spiked commercial 297 food (<0.1 %) (Franklin et al., 2005) is comparable to that reported for higher animals of 3-6%

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(ATSDR, 1999). It is therefore not unexpected that the short-term cellular response in *Fundulus heteroclitus* would be heightened in the intestine, which is exposed directly during dietary
exposures, in comparison with other organs that depend on interorgan transport from the
intestine for cadmium exposure.
Induction of metallothionein, enhanced cadmium binding capacity in intestinal cells, and

304 gradual transfer of cadmium-metallothionein complexes across the serosal membrane to other 305 organs are proposed as mechanisms to protect against the rapid accumulation of cadmium by internal organs (Elsenhans et al., 1997). Our finding that metallothionein mRNA in the intestine 306 307 is most responsive to dietary cadmium in comparison with other organs extends, to the gene 308 expression level, observations that the intestine had the highest levels of the metallothionein protein during dietary exposure of fish to cadmium (Berntssen et al., 2001a; Chowdhury et al., 309 310 2005). Retention of dietary cadmium in rainbow trout is highest in the gut and lower in other 311 organs (Chowdhury et al., 2004b; Franklin et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2008), a pattern consistent with 312 our observations for metallothionein mRNA induction in Fundulus heteroclitus. The quantifiable 313 relationship between intestinal metallothionein expression and exposure to dietary cadmium in F. 314 heteroclitus may reflect a protective function for intestinal metallothionein. However, this 315 induction may not be without its own contribution to the toxicity of cadmium, since cadmium 316 transported out of the intestine as cadmium-metallothionein can be filtered and absorbed by the kidney, a target of cadmium toxicity (Zalups et al., 2003). 317 318

While the mechanism for potentiation of cadmium-induced metallothionein expression by benzo(a)pyrene is not known, our observations are consistent with an earlier report showing that hepatic metallothionein induction in *F. heteroclitus* is enhanced after intraperitoneal injection of

322 both cadmium and benzo(a)pyrene, in comparison with injection with cadmium alone (van den 323 Hurk et al., 2000). In addition, the levels of both hepatic cadmium and metallothionein are also 324 elevated in the Antarctic fish Trematomus bernacchii injected with a combination of 2,3,7,8-325 tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD) and cadmium, when compared with induction by cadmium 326 alone (Regoli et al., 2005). Although the bioaccumulation pathway for benzo(a)pyrene and 327 cadmium in our study differed from that of these two studies, i.e., dietary to intestine versus 328 intraperitoneal injection to liver, the cellular mechanisms for regulating metallothionein gene 329 expression may be similar. It is interesting to note that, in higher animals, the signal transduction 330 pathways for benzo(a)pyrene and cadmium converge in the regulatory sequences in the 331 metallothionein gene. The upstream stimulatory factor one (USF1) is involved in regulation of 332 the metallothionein gene in response to cadmium (Andrews, 2000; Daniels et al., 2003; Datta et al., 1997), and there is overlap of the sequence for the xenobiotic response element with that of 333 the USF1-binding site in the metallothionein I promoter (Takahashi et al., 1997). This suggests 334 335 that the potentiation by benzo(a)pyrene may lie in interactions at the level of transcriptional 336 regulation of the metallothionein gene.

337

338 At the broader level, our finding that benzo(a)pyrene potentiated intestinal metallothionein 339 induction by cadmium is of particular interest due to the fact that environments contaminated by 340 cadmium are often elevated in other substances such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. Based 341 on our findings, fish in such environments could display levels of metallothionein expression that 342 are higher than would be expected from cadmium exposure alone. However, the toxicological 343 significance of the increased induction is not clear-cut. For example, increased intestinal 344 metallothionein levels may further protect the intestine against cadmium toxicity and facilitate 345 retention of cadmium in the intestine. On the other hand, increased induction could also enhance

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346	metallothionein's role as the vehicle for the interorgan transport of cadmium from the intestine as
347	the cadmium-metallothionein complex. How potentiation of metallothionein expression by
348	polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons such as benzo(a)pyrene affects the toxicodynamics and
349	toxicity of cadmium and, perhaps, other metals remains to be determined.
350	
351	Acknowledgements
352	
353	This study was supported in part by the Chesapeake Ecotox Research Project through an award
354	from Maryland Sea Grant to the University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science.
355	
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454 List of Figures:

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456 Figure 1. Representative real-time RT-PCR amplification profiles for intestinal, liver, and gill

457 metallothionein mRNAs in *Fundulus heteroclitus* exposed to dietary cadmium. The arrows point

458 to representative threshold cycles ( $C_t$ 's) of each tissue group on the X-axis.

459

460 Figure 2. Dose-response relationship of ingested cadmium and levels of metallothionein mRNA

461 in *Fundulus heteroclitus* exposed to dietary cadmium. Levels of metallothionein mRNA were

462 determined by real-time qPCR and expressed as  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  (Livak et al., 2001). R<sup>2</sup> and significance of

463 regression coefficients:  $R^2 = 0.640$ , p<0.006 for intestine;  $R^2 = 0.001$ , p<0.98 for liver; and  $R^2 =$ 

464 0.011, p< 0.79 for gill.

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465 Table 1. Comparison of metallothionein mRNA levels in intestine, liver, and gill tissues in

466 control fish and fish exposed to dietary cadmium in the first experiment. Samples were

467 analyzed by real-time PCR, and values are expressed as  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  (mean  $\pm 1$  S.E., n=3 for

- 468 controls and n=7 or 8 for cadmium treated).
- 469

		Organ*	
Treatment*	Gill	Liver	Intestine
Control	0.108 <u>+</u> 0.051	0.923 <u>+</u> 0.044	0.611 <u>+</u> 0.243
Cadmium	0.176 <u>+</u> 0.055	1.151 <u>+</u> 0.314	6.510 <u>+</u> 1.000**
Fold increase	1.6	1.2	10.7

470

471 \*Analysis of variance showed that differences due to the Treatment, Organ, and the

472 Organ x Treatment interaction were significant (p < 0.002). The Tukey HSD test showed

473 that the Control treatment was significantly different from that of Cadmium. For the

474 effect of Organ, Intestine was significantly different from Liver and Gill, which were not

475 significantly different from each other (p < 0.05).

476 \*\* The Tukey HSD test also showed that the Cadmium x Intestine interaction was

- 477 significantly different from all other combinations of Treatment x Organ, which were not478 significantly different from each other.
- 479
- 480

481 Table 2. Comparison of metallothionein mRNA levels in intestine, liver, and gill tissues

in control fish and fish exposed to dietary cadmium, benzo(a)pyrene, or a

483 combination of cadmium and benzo(a)pyrene in the second experiment. Samples

484 were analyzed by real-time PCR, and values are expressed as  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  (mean <u>+</u> 1

485 S.E., n=10)

486

Organ*		
Gill	Liver	Intestine
0.54 <u>+</u> 0.17	0.81 <u>+</u> 0.25	1.23 <u>+</u> 0.39
1.24 <u>+</u> 0.39	2.32 <u>+</u> 0.73	24.52 <u>+</u> 7.75**
0.63 <u>+</u> 0.20	1.27 <u>+</u> 0.40	3.27 <u>+</u> 1.06
1.92 <u>+</u> 0.60	4.84 <u>+</u> 1.53	42.70 <u>+</u> 12.80***
	Gill $0.54 \pm 0.17$ $1.24 \pm 0.39$ $0.63 \pm 0.20$ $1.92 \pm 0.60$	Organ*GillLiver $0.54 \pm 0.17$ $0.81 \pm 0.25$ $1.24 \pm 0.39$ $2.32 \pm 0.73$ $0.63 \pm 0.20$ $1.27 \pm 0.40$ $1.92 \pm 0.60$ $4.84 \pm 1.53$

487

\*Analysis of variance showed that differences due to the Treatment, Organ, and the 488 489 Organ x Treatment interaction were significant (p < 0.001). The Tukey HSD test showed that the Control treatment was significantly different from that of Cadmium and the 490 491 cadmium and benzo(a)pyrene Combination (p < 0.05). For the effect of Organ, Intestine 492 was significantly different from Liver and Gill, which were not significantly different from each other (p < 0.05). 493 \*\*.\*\*\* The Tukey HSD test also showed that Cadmium x Intestine interaction was 494 495 significantly different from that of Combination x Intestine, and both of these combinations were significantly different from all other combinations of Treatment x 496 Organ, which were not significantly different from each other. 497

Fig. 1 Roesijadi et al.



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Fig. 2 Roesijadi et al.

